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ABSTRACT

A global awareness survey of Japanese education majors was carried out to assess the level of knowledge of freshmen and senior teacher trainees, the level of their attitudinal awareness of key global issues, and their level of competence in their most proficient second language. A stratified sample was drawn from the total population of Japanese national universities involved in teacher training. One hundred students, 50 males and 50 females, from each of 14 national universities were selected to participate in the survey. The response rate was 90 percent. When findings were compared to a similar survey in the United States, the following comparisons were noted: Japanese students scored considerably better on general knowledge of the world; the Japanese tended to be more altruistic but less optimistic about finding solutions to global problems; and the Japanese exhibited a stronger commitment to learning a second language. Based on these findings, recommendations are made to those responsible for training social studies teachers in the United States, including the following: (1) education programs need to be more directive in the kinds of courses preservice social studies teachers take; (2) the concept of "internationalization" must be built into a variety of courses, including social studies methods courses; and (3) social studies professional courses can serve as the major starting point for global awareness. (LP)

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THE JAPANESE - U.S. GLOBAL AWARENESS SURVEY:
IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS*

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University of Minnesota

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At twenty I realized I had a part to play in the
life of my state.

At thirty I realized I had a part to play in the
life of the entire nation.

At forty I realized I had a part to play in the
life of the entire world.

(Shozan, 1854)

INTRODUCTION

The case could be safely made that the above does not apply to the vast majority of students who have completed 12 or even 14 years of schooling in the United States. In spite of a continual encounter with discipline which comprise the social studies, American youth are, by and large, ignorant not only of the world but of their state and nation as well. (Helgren, 1983; ONOP, 1974; Barrows, 1981.) These studies demonstrate an appalling lack of global understanding upon the part of the future citizens of one of the world's so called "superpowers."

Japan, although not yet classified as a "superpower" is clearly an energetic player upon the global stage. Ever since the opening of Japan to the rest of the world in the nineteenth century there has been a concern, conscious or unconscious, with the concept of internationalization as the nation sought to establish its place in the world order. With the more recent economic boom of the 1960's and '70's, Japan was thrust prominently into the international limelight as the world focused attention on the "Japanese miracle." As we move toward the dawn of the 21st century Japan has achieved the status of the world's second leading economic power and must now assume the increased responsibilities in the world order which go with this success. With rapid economic growth, there came the realization that "social and intellectual 'internationalization' would have to accompany economic achievement." (Kitamura, 1983, p.1). Higher education is an important contributor to this process of intellectual "internationalization."

Herbert Passin defines internationalization, "as the awareness of interdependence, the process of adjusting to the involvement that arises from it, and the conditions that facilitate or impede the capacity to engage in these interactions. (Passin, 1983, pp. 22-23). Passin then outlines four different levels of internationalization:

1. national - participation as a nation in international society economically, politically, and socially;
2. organizational - the adjustments. . . organizations, particularly those involved in the process of international association, must make in order to be able to take part effectively;

3. cultural - the adaptation of (a) culture to the exigencies of increased international interdependency;
4. individual - on the one hand, the changes that internationalization brings to the individual and, on the other hand, the changes that must take place if individuals are to participate more fully in international activities. (Passin, 1983, p. 20)

It is the individual level that is focused upon in this paper. It is here that changes in knowledge and perspective must first take place if they are to ultimately be realized at the other three levels. And it is at this level that higher education has a key role to play in the Japanese context.

The crucial question being asked of those in higher education is whether or not the current generation of Japanese now in universities, the future leaders and policy makers of the nation, is being educated with the knowledge and attitudes necessary to assume the obligations of global leadership; i.e., are the universities providing education for a global age? This same question is equally applicable to students in American universities.

GLOBAL CONCERN

In the United States this concern for "internationalization" has received the attention of a number of national commissions and has been the focus of a major study in an attempt to gather some benchmark data.

Students graduating from American colleges today live in a world whose people and institutions are increasingly interdependent. Are these educated citizens prepared to understand the interactions of nations in an interdependent world? Do they apprehend world problems from a universal and multidisciplinary point of view, and can they appreciate the immense complexity of both the causes and effects of these issues? Do they perceive the extent to which individual lives, including their own, are affected by global or international conditions, and do historical perspectives guide their understanding? (Barrows, et al., 1980, p.19)

In 1980, the Council on Learning (COL) in the United States, as part of its "Education and the World View" project, attempted to find out answers to these questions (COL, 1980). The survey contained four sections:

1. background information on the respondents
2. knowledge about the world
3. attitudes and opinions about global issues and problems
4. self-assessment of second language capability.

The development of the survey was guided by a panel of leading scholars in a variety of discipline areas. The assessment was carried out in the winter and spring of 1980.

The findings of this national survey are well known; they were not encouraging. The sample of 1000 seniors achieved a mean score of 50.5 on the knowledge test. Significant score differences were found between different fields of study—history majors scoring highest (59.3) and education majors, America's future teachers, lowest (39.8). Perhaps even more disturbing, the students' responses to the attitude and opinion scales showed a very limited and parochial view of the world. Finally, there was little relationship found between proficiency in foreign languages and understanding of foreign affairs.

The findings of this study gained widespread attention among the higher education community in the United States. The report came shortly after a national commission on foreign language and international studies authorized by President Jimmy Carter was sharply critical of the level of international understanding of students at all levels, Kindergarten-university.

The COL survey results also drew attention in Japan. This stimulated my interest and I subsequently applied for a Senior Fulbright Research Grant to carry out a replication on a national sample of education majors in Japan.

The study is of particular importance to higher education in Japan at this point in time. As Japan seeks to establish its place in the world order it will require a generation of leaders and citizens with the knowledge and attitudes necessary to develop a global perspective. At the same time, other nations, especially those of the Pacific Rim and East Asia, will be looking to Japan for leadership in the development of the concept of "internationalization" in their nations. Institutions of higher education in Japan will be expected to provide the necessary leadership in this task. A necessary part of embarking on such a program is to first ascertain the current level of international understanding in Japanese university students. Only then can the necessary modifications be made to confront the enormous task ahead.

The Study

The global awareness survey of Japanese education majors was carried out with support from the Japan-U.S. Education Commission (Fulbright) and the Bush Foundation of St. Paul, Minnesota, U.S.A., during the 1982-83 academic year. The investigator was affiliated with the Faculty of Education at Hiroshima University. It is one of the foremost Faculties of Education in Japan.

The intent of the study was to assess:

1. the level of knowledge of Japanese freshmen and senior teacher trainees
2. the level of their attitudinal awareness about key global issues
3. the level of competence (self-assessed) in their most proficient foreign language (MPFL)

Education majors were focused upon specifically in this study inasmuch as they, as future teachers and educational leaders, would have primary responsibility for educating the coming generations for international understanding. How well they are grounded in the knowledge and attitudes necessary to the development of a global perspective could well determine how effectively the concept of "internationalization" takes hold in Japan.

The Instrumentation

The original ETS instrument used in the United States was translated into Japanese in 1981 by a team of faculty from Sophia University, a prestigious private university in Tokyo. This group conducted a pilot study at Sophia and graciously consented to my use of it. The Japanese questionnaire was a translation of the U.S. original with minor changes in content and wording of some statements. The one major difference between the two was the elimination of the extensive background section in the foreign language portion of the instrument. Obvious differences between the pluralistic society of the United States and the more monocultural Japanese society made it difficult to make comparisons and thus the language background section was omitted in the translated version.

A further modification in the attitude and opinion scaling section was the collapsing of the Likert categories from five to three choices. In the original U.S. version, respondents could choose from: "strongly agree," "agree," "indifferent," "disagree," and "strongly disagree." The Japanese felt that these distinctions were too fine and would only confuse the students. Thus the two extremes were merged into "agree" and "disagree" with "indifferent" in between.

As already noted, the survey instrument contained four major sections and took about two hours to administer. The first section was designed to ascertain extensive background information on the respondents. This was followed by a section on interest in and use of the respondents' "most proficient foreign language." Next came a series of three attitude and opinion surveys. The first series of questions was designed to determine how the students perceive eight major world issues. Respondents were asked to rate each of the issues on eleven different factors of importance. The second part of this series asked the students to indicate their agreement or

disagreement with 32 statements related to human rights, chauvinism, world government, cooperation, and war. The third part was a personality assessment in which the students had to reply "true or false" to statements such as "I make an effort to meet people from other countries," designed to measure their interest in the world and the kinship with and concern for others.

The final part of the instrument consisted of 101 questions clustered around 13 topics and designed to test the respondents' knowledge about the world.

One final note on the instrument is in order. Once permission had been obtained to use the translated instrument, a backtranslation was carried out to ensure accuracy of the translated version before dissemination and administration. This was done in consultation with several Japanese colleagues who questioned the need initially but were soon convinced of the need for such an undertaking. The process took a considerable amount of time but in the end more than 30 translating errors were uncovered including some major ones.

The Sample

A stratified random sample was drawn for the study from the total population of national universities throughout Japan involved in the training of teachers and educational leaders. The stratification was based upon both geographic location and the size of the institution. Fourteen national universities were selected to participate. This represents just over 25% of the national universities engaged in the training of teachers. In addition, two private universities were asked to take part. Both agreed initially but one dropped out later for political reasons.

The target was to select, at random, 100 students from each institution--50 freshmen and 50 seniors, engaged in teacher training programs. As in the U.S. study, a faculty member was secured on each campus to coordinate the research activities. They were paid a modest honorarium to draw the sample according to my instruction, administer the survey instrument (2 hours), collect and return to me.

A total of 1600 instruments were mailed out (800 to freshmen; 800 for seniors). There were 1436 completed questionnaires returned--a response rate of 90%. This jumps to 96% if you factor out the 100 instruments sent to the university which dropped out of the study before administration. In drawing the sample for analysis a further sampling was conducted to assure randomness across the population. As a result, 418 freshmen [177 men (42.3%); 240 women (57.4%)] and 407 seniors [207 men (50.9%); 199 women (48.9%)], were selected for a total population of 825.

The Findings

The mass of data generated by the global awareness survey instrument is, to say the least, overwhelming. I have only begun what will undoubtedly be a long period of analysis and re-analysis. The ultimate goal is a thorough comparative analysis of the Japanese and U.S. data. The intent of this paper is to focus upon the implications for the training of social studies teachers.

The findings will be grouped into four areas:

1. General background data
2. Knowledge
3. Attitudes
4. Foreign language

Where appropriate, comparisons are drawn with the results of the American survey.

General Background Information

Before looking at the findings in specific areas, some understanding of the make-up of the respondents is in order. Some thirty (30) background questions were posed to draw out this information. Who, then, are these respondents?

They are about evenly divided in terms of gender, i.e., 53% female and 47% male. They come from across the range of subject disciplines, e.g., biological and physical science, social science, humanities and linguistics, math, art and music, foreign language, general education and a number of others.

As for family background, about 23% of their fathers had completed a university degree whereas only 4.5% of their mothers had done so. Most mothers completed their schooling at the senior high school level (53%).

Regarding political preference, most of the respondents, 77% of the freshmen and 69% of the seniors, expressed none. Of those with a preference, most chose the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP), a conservative party, with the Japan Socialist Party (JSP) a distant second. The socialists have a much

stronger position in Japan than is the case in the United States in terms of political party status. These preferences were in line with those of their parents, i.e., 38% of the fathers and 33% of the mothers also showed a preference for the LDP. Even then, however, 40% of the respondents didn't know their father's political preference and 50% didn't know their mother's. The final question in this area asked them to place themselves on a political continuum from Left to Right. The vast majority of the respondents, 69% of the freshmen and 62% of the seniors, placed themselves squarely in the middle. This pattern was somewhat similar in the U.S. sample with 60% of the freshmen and 43% of the seniors expressing a middle-of-the-road political preference.

With respect to how the respondents gained their information about global issues and events, some interesting comparisons with the U.S. sample emerge. The Japanese appear to be more interested in the news than their American counterparts. In response to the question, "How often do you watch world and domestic news on television? 48% of the freshmen and 62% of the seniors reported daily watching. American students responded with 15% and 25% respectively.

With respect to the daily consumption of radio news the reverse proved to be true. In response to the question, "How often do you listen to local news on the radio?" 40% of U.S. freshmen and 34% of U.S. seniors reported listening more than once a day. Their Japanese counterparts reported figures of 14% and 17% respectively.

In the U.S., those who scored highest on the knowledge test were those who read newspapers daily and read weekly news magazines, not those who listened to radio and watched TV. In light of this, the Japanese response proves very interesting. In response to the question, "How often do you read a

newspaper?", 67% of Japanese freshmen and 76% of Japanese seniors reported daily reading patterns. The American percentages were 30% and 36%. In terms of weekly news magazine reading, 51% of the Japanese freshmen and 74% of the seniors reported regular reading. The figures for the U.S. sample were 73% for the freshmen and 63% for the seniors.

Based upon the figures in these several media categories, the Japanese respondents should do as well as or better than their American counterparts on the knowledge section of the survey. As we shall see in subsequent analysis of the data, that proved to be the case.

Another area in the U.S. survey which appeared to have a relationship to global understanding was the frequency of exposure to global problems and issues in their college classes. In response to the question, "How often did you study or discuss world problems or issues in your college classes?" the Japanese reported figures of 42% and 34% as compared to 50% and 54% for the Americans in terms of once or twice a week. History and the social sciences were most often cited as contributing in this area. This was also the case in the U.S. sample.

On the other hand when the respondents were asked, "To what extent have your college experiences outside of the classroom contributed to your awareness of world issues?" the U.S. sample indicated a much larger impact, i.e., 36% for freshmen and 49% for seniors as compared with 10% and 8% respectively for the Japanese. The survey instrument was not designed to ascertain what these outside experiences were and this is indeed unfortunate. One wonders if there were any consistently significant experiences which professors might use to strengthen in-class learning.

It is often said that there is no substitute for traveling abroad in gaining both knowledge and improved attitudinal perspectives on the world. Yet only 2% of Japanese freshmen and 10% of the seniors have travelled outside Japan as compared with 58% of the U.S. freshmen and 64% of the American seniors. In terms of the Japanese sample, it can be safely concluded that foreign travel had little or no impact on performance in the global survey.

Foreign language is another factor often mentioned in the acquisition of global understanding. When Japanese were asked to identify their "most proficient foreign language" (MPFL), 96% of the freshmen and seniors named English. There was no overwhelming counterpart for the American students, although for Spanish the figures were 57% for freshmen and 43% for seniors. This points out three important factors to be kept in mind when analyzing the results. First, the strong commitment of the Japanese to learning English. The nation is well aware of the importance of English in the conduct of international affairs and world trade. Considerable emphasis is placed upon the learning of English from junior high school onward. Indeed, it is one of the major areas of assessment in the common university entrance examinations. Second, the figures point to the monocultural/monolingual nature of Japan and the pluralistic character of the United States. Third, it emphasizes the results of policy emanating from a centralized Ministry of Education as opposed to a decentralized system (state directed) where no uniform policy exists. The Japanese commitment to the learning of a second language is unambiguous. The lack of a coherent second language policy will continue to work to the detriment of U.S. citizens as they increasingly face the need to interact with fellow citizens around the world.

A profile of the typical Japanese respondent in global survey can be summarized as follows:

1. an A or B student...
2. as likely to be female as male...
3. from across the range of disciplines of study...
4. with little preference for party politics...
5. who watches television news...
6. who reads newspapers and weekly news magazines...
7. who has had moderate exposure to global issues and problems in college classes...
8. who has not traveled abroad...
9. and who has declared English as their most proficient second language.

Knowledge

Now that we have a profile on the Japanese respondents, what do they know about the world? It is the knowledge area of the survey which has drawn most of the comment in the U.S. study. As noted at the outset, U.S. seniors who were education majors scored lowest in this area. A general scan of the comparative mean scores indicates that Japanese students scored better. The mean score for Japanese seniors was almost a full 10% better--49.3% and 39.8%. Thus, the Japanese education majors not only scored better than their U.S. counterparts; they scored just short of the national mean for all discipline groups in the U.S. survey--50.5%.

Limited space simply does not permit a detailed analysis of the findings in this area. However, it is worth noting that there were a number of questions which seemed to give Japanese respondents particular difficulty. These were questions in which about one-third (34%) or less of the respondents answered correctly. There were 27 such questions or about one-fourth of the total which fall into this category. A sample is listed in the following pages with an asterisk (*) next to the correct response. It should be further noted that on a vast majority of these items, U.S. respondents also scored correctly less than 34% of the time.

Both Japanese and U.S. students had considerable difficulty with questions dealing with religious issues. This area more than any other seemed to give respondents from both samples problems.

Perhaps a comment or two is in order regarding how the knowledge instrument was put together. The assessment committee had to choose between two approaches:

1. international relations
2. global issues

The committee chose the latter inasmuch as global issues transcend world regions and nations and thus required a global perspective of the respondents. This approach also includes multiple dimensions and permitted the tracing of ramifications of the issues over space and time. The 101 questions were clustered around 13 topic areas:

1. environment
2. food
3. health

4. international monetary and trade
5. population
6. energy
7. race and ethnicity
8. human rights
9. war and armaments
10. arts and culture
11. religious issues
12. relations among states
13. distributions of national characteristics

In addition, many of the knowledge items were not designed to test traditional textbook learning only. Rather they required the respondent to have a current knowledge of issues and events as presented in the mass media of communication as well. This is why those who watched and listened to television and radio news and especially those who read newspapers and weekly news magazines did better on this section of the survey. Newspapers and news journals give more in-depth coverage to issues and since the Japanese respondents read more they tended to score better.

Finally, this was not an easy test. It required not only knowledge but the ability to synthesize and integrate data as well. A number of the Japanese respondents commented on the difficulty of the measure by saying it was just like taking the social studies portion of the common university entrance exam all over again!

Attitudes and Opinions

Knowledge is but only one way of understanding. Perhaps equally important, and yet often overlooked in surveys of global understanding, is the area of attitudes and opinions, i.e., how do the respondents view their world? Without an attitude set which is open to the ideas, traditions, problems and ways of other peoples and nations, the chances for attaining an increased level of international understanding are diminished.

It is in this area where some of the most interesting findings of the study are found. As noted earlier, there were three attitude measures employed. The first was designed to ascertain how the respondents perceived global issues. There were eight problems/issues to be rated.

1. Environmental pollution
2. Denial of basic human rights
3. Unemployment
4. Intergroup conflict
5. Depletion of natural resources
6. Inflation
7. Malnutrition and inadequate health care
8. International conflict of war.

On each of the eight scales there were eleven statements with which the respondent was to express agreement, indifference, or disagreement. Figure 1 provides an example.

(Figure 1)

This same pattern was repeated for all eight issues listed above.

A close examination of the Japanese respondents' answers reveals some interesting patterns of belief and opinion.

1. They believe that these are all important problems.
2. But they also believe that these problems are unavoidable, with the exception of Intergroup Conflict and Malnutrition and Adequate Health Care.
3. They believe, again with the exception of Malnutrition and Inadequate Health Care, that these problems are all related to many other problems, i.e., they are complex problems.
4. They also believe that most of these are long-term rather than temporary problems.

The U.S. respondents, on the other hand, tended to believe:

1. That government could do much more to solve these problems.
2. That these problems were solvable whereas the Japanese remained indifferent on this issue.
3. That these were global problems whereas the Japanese were again not clear on this.

The second of the attitude measures asked respondents to express their level of agreement with 32 statements indicative of attitudes toward human rights, war, chauvinism, world government and cooperation. A summary of the results show that the Japanese respondents were:

1. Very strongly opposed to war or any justification for it.
2. Strongly supportive of human rights for all.
3. Generally favorably disposed to some form of world government.
4. In favor of a greater degree of cooperation among nations and international organizations.

In the main, the Japanese respondents tended to be more altruistic and less chauvinistic than their American counterparts on these opinion statements. Several examples serve to illustrate the point.

Noteworthy in some of the examples, especially those focusing on open immigration to one's country is the fact that positive attitudes expressed by these students run directly counter to recent past practices of the Japanese government, e.g., the small number of Southeast Asian refugees permitted into the country; the treatment of third generation Koreans living in Japan, and naturalized citizens, as foreigners. One must wonder aloud whether the open attitudes expressed by these students are representative of only them or perhaps are an early signal to a change in the attitude of the nation toward gaijin , foreigners.

The final part of the attitude and opinion section was a ten-item self-perception scale in which the respondents were to indicate whether or not the statement accurately described them. The Japanese and U.S. respondents were in general agreement on eight of the ten items (see figure 3) The two where they disagreed provide an interesting perspective.

(Figure 2)

In item one, the Japanese respondents expressed a general lack of interest in learning about international developments. And on item ten they noted little effort in meeting people from other countries. Both of these are attitudes which could show a tendency toward an insular rather than an international perspective. These opinions also are in conflict with the general nature of the Japanese responses on the 32 item "Opinion Survey" described earlier. Given that the respondents are education majors, the future teachers, policy makers and professors for the nation, coupled with Japan's increased prominence in the world order, this should be noted as an area of concern by those in Japanese higher education circles.

Foreign Language Attitudes

The final assessment area to be examined is concerned with language attitudes. As noted earlier, in the original instrument there was an extensive background section on the respondents "most proficient foreign language" (MPFL). Foreign language is another factor often mentioned in the acquisition of a global perspective. When Japanese were asked to identify their "most proficient language" (MPFL), 96% of the freshmen and seniors named

English. There was no overwhelming counterpart for the American students. Due to the monolingual nature of the Japanese, most of the background section was eliminated when the instrument was translated into Japanese.

The foreign language attitude assessment consisted of fifteen statements regarding the importance of second language learning. The respondents were to indicate their degree of agreement with or indifference to each of the statements. Figure 4 outlines some of the more significant attitudes expressed by the Japanese respondents.

(Figure 3)

Although the respondents are in strong agreement about the importance of learning a foreign language, they are not in agreement on why it is important, e.g., #3, #5, and #15. They show a willingness to learn the language of a country they are to stay in for an extended period of time. Of particular interest is the finding (#4) that although most of the respondents indicated they learned their MPFL in school, 98% of the freshmen and 99% of the seniors, nearly three out of four do not believe that foreign languages are an important part of the school program. And finally, the mixed result in response to question #1 would seem to support and confirm the finding in #10 of the self-perception scale discussed earlier. In that instance over 80% of both the freshmen and senior respondents indicated they made little or no effort to meet people from other countries. In the language attitude assessment only a moderate number of the respondents indicated they enjoyed meeting people who spoke other languages.

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Conclusions and Implications

So what does all of this mean for those involved in social studies education in both Japan and the U.S.? One must begin this commentary with a caveat. In any study of a cross-national, cross-cultural nature, where an instrument which was developed for use in one nation is subsequently translated for use in another, one must always be cautious in making sweeping generalizations about the findings. In this instance every possible precaution was taken including backtranslation of the instrument, modifying questions so that they translated properly and even eliminating items or sections which simply did not translate. Even so, the readers should keep this in mind as they consider the conclusions and implications.

A summary of the findings shows that the Japanese respondents, all education majors, scored better than their American counterparts, a full 10 percentage points better for seniors and nearly 11% for freshmen, on the knowledge segment of the survey. Indeed, they scored nearly at the national mean for the U.S. sample (50.5%) which included all discipline areas. Nevertheless, the score, 49.3%, does not reflect an exceptional level of knowledge on the part of the respondents either in Japan or the U.S.

The sum of this is that Japanese education majors, the vast majority of whom will go on to be teachers, know more about the world in which they live than their U.S. counterparts. This may be attributed in part to the exam oriented Japanese educational system, i.e., students are better prepared coming into university as a result of having studied for and passing the university entrance examinations. There are doubts, however, about the Japanese respondents' interest in global affairs as only one-third answered in

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the affirmative to the question, "I am interested in international relations and acquire information about international developments whenever I can." Just the reverse was true in the U.S. sample where two-thirds indicated interest.

Another factor which cannot be overlooked is that the Japanese read newspapers more frequently than their American counterparts and there is a positive correlation between newspaper reading and performance on the knowledge test. Japanese newspapers in general carry a far greater volume of international news than do most U.S. papers.

Some have argued that the knowledge test is unusually difficult and thus the mediocre performance. Others claim that since it is not based strictly upon academic textbook knowledge it is unfair. Both of these charges miss the stated intent of the test, "namely, to measure what should be known at a criterion level or. . . needs to be known if global situations and processes are to be fully understood." (Barrows, et.al. 1981, p. 134). In terms of this, neither the Japanese nor the U.S. sample did particularly well. It does, however, give those in higher education on both sides of the Pacific something to consider in terms of the orientation of their course lectures, readings and assignments with the goal of internationalizing their students. It also gives educators in both nations a basis for comparison and a benchmark for future efforts.

One final comment regarding the knowledge section is in order. It is the difference in correct response rate between the freshmen and senior students. While the difference in the overall U.S. sample was about 10% there was only a 2% differential between the freshmen and senior students in the Japanese sample. It has already been noted that one possible reason for this is the

nature of the exam system leading up to admission to university entrance. The other side of the question, however, is what happens, or doesn't, during the four years at university which would account for such a low score difference. This finding alone should give those in higher education, especially in Japan, cause to wonder about and reflect upon the international content of university courses of study.

On the second major component of the survey, the attitudinal dimension, the Japanese respondents appear to be more altruistic on questions of chauvinism, human rights, cooperation, etc. than their American counterparts. On the other hand, the Japanese are far less optimistic about the possibility of solving global issues and problems; indeed, they believe they are unavoidable. It is important to note, however, that the altruism expressed by the students is not necessarily reflected in Japanese policy, the immigration of foreigners and refugees to Japan being a case in point. One has cause to wonder, therefore, as to whether the attitudes expressed by the respondents are indicative of a shift in Japanese attitudes generally or only amongst this group.

Some have argued that the Japanese focus on "internationalization" is merely a screen to cover rising nationalism.

The internationalization of Japan is first and foremost an economic matter, and secondarily it refers to processes which result from and/or facilitate economic internationalization. . .

In short, the goal of Japan's internationalization is to enhance and protect

Japan's national interest, and this is expressed most prominently in economic terms. . . Internationalism and nationalism are supposedly antithetical to one another. Yet in the Japanese case, one leads directly to the other. (Befu, 1983, pp. 260-261)

". . . internationalism is often used to mean the smooth promotion of "Japan's national interests." In this context, the term has come to mean the achievement of Japan's economic goals overseas without rocking the boat in international waters. (Mouer & Sugimoto, 1983, p. 269)

However, the data gathered in this study do not suggest this trend. And, even if the arguments put forth above are accurate, the Japanese conceptualization may be rather commonplace around the world. Indeed, the parochialism displayed by the U.S. respondents would appear to suggest that this concept of "internationalization" is prevalent in America as well.

The final section of the survey on attitudes toward foreign language study shows that Japan has made a strong commitment to second language learning which is far from true in the United States. There was a marked difference between the Japanese and American samples in terms of their motivation or interest in studying a second language. The Americans were much more motivated by personal interest whereas the Japanese gave more weight to a question relating to the national interest in learning a second language.

"It is important for Japanese/Americans
to learn foreign languages."

Japanese F - 88.5%

S - 86.9%

U.S. F - 75.3%

S - 81.1%

The question left unanswered in this area is one which the data simply don't provide for: does interest in global or international affairs motivate students to study foreign languages or is it just the reverse? The answer may provide some direction to those working in both the teaching of foreign language and the study of international affairs.

What is to be learned from this study for those working in the training of social studies teachers? Although the Japanese respondents scored better on the knowledge section and were more altruistic in general in their attitudes than their American counterparts, neither group performed at a very commendable level. There are some things those in higher education might consider as they seek to improve the level of global understanding of their students. These recommendations are made generally with the current training patterns as a given, i.e., without significant modifications of organizational structure. Here I will direct my remarks primarily at U.S. social studies educators and leave it to Nakamura-senssi to comment on the situation in Japan.

1. In considering the 2-year general liberal arts curriculum taken by future social studies teachers, perhaps there is a need to be more directive

in the kinds of courses students take when considering the long term goal of developing global understanding. Rather than giving students carte blanche across the range of courses in a given discipline area, perhaps we need to give them choices within a range of courses which are known to be internationally oriented. This would at least begin to ease the problem faced by most of us as we find students coming to us who lack the basic knowledge necessary to build on in our methods courses and clinical experiences.

This will necessitate working more closely with colleagues across campus in these discipline areas. We need to share with them the kinds of things we are trying to do in our courses, the expectations we have for students coming into professional courses and work jointly toward a base of knowledge upon which we can build.

2. Within the professional sequence, we need to build the concept of "internationalization" into a variety of courses. I speak here not only of methods and materials courses in the social studies, but foundations courses as well. Social studies teachers need to see how this concept permeates a number of areas if they are to take seriously the notion of integrating the concept throughout their offerings. Indeed, one of the major problems faced by the "global education" movement in this country, and in Japan as well for that matter, is that it is viewed as primarily a social studies movement. No one would argue that global education is not closely aligned with the social studies. But until social studies educators provide the leadership to show how global concepts integrate into other disciplines, and foundations areas within the professional sequence, global education will remain just that--a social studies movement.

Social studies faculty in teacher training programs should seek to work with their education colleagues in a cross-and/or interdisciplinary fashion. Students must see that global issues and problems cut across discipline lines.

3. The major starting point still remains within the social studies

professional courses which we all teach. The areas outlined in #1 and #2 are very important. But if all else fails there is a lot we can do to further students' international understanding within our own courses.

- orient course assignments and discussions toward global examples of the concepts and generalizations under discussion.
- orient course readings on global issues, topics and problems. Even though you use a basic text, supplemental readings could focus on global areas.
- require students to read a newspaper daily and a weekly news journal. Both Japanese and U.S. students in the studies discussed above, who did this, performed much better than their peers on the knowledge test.
- expose students to agencies and organizations that focus on specific global problems/issues and get them actively involved in one or more of those groups.
- as a bridge to the social science disciplines, have faculty from those areas who have a specific global orientation guest lecture in your course to demonstrate how selected concepts within that discipline can be used to illustrate a global dimension. The studies discussed in the preceding pages showed geography to be a key discipline in the development of international understanding.
- expose your students to other peoples and cultures. Obviously the ideal way to do this is through study abroad kinds of options. But the cost of these generally rules out a good number of students.

Another option, generally overlooked, is the utilization of ethnic/cultural groups within the community. Many university communities have significant populations of groups of this kind. Indeed, this is a perceived strength of this nation, its pluralistic nature.

—capitalize on the foreign student population at your institution. This is another overlooked but very valuable resource present on many campuses. Find a way to integrate these students into your course activities. It is a two-way learning process as both American and foreign students gain new insights about one another and issues of a global nature.

These are only a few suggestions of things we can do within our own courses. It's very easy to shift the blame to someone else when discussing why the "internationalization" of teachers in training doesn't happen. There is much more we could be doing on our own, however, to initiate the process.

There are other needs as well, e.g., the support of deans and department chairs, the commitment of faculty colleagues, schools and school districts open to the development of an international dimension in their curricula so that your graduates have a place to implement their knowledge and skills. These changes will not take place overnight but we can blame no one but ourselves if we fail to at least initiate changes within our control in our program areas.

In summary, the findings of both the Japanese and U.S. studies are not particularly encouraging; we all have much work to do. The world will not slow down while we contemplate what to do. The task before us is clear and the need to implement is now.

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Figure 1

EXAMPLE ASSESSMENT OF WORLD PROBLEMS

Environmental Pollution

Agree Indifferent Disagree

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. This problem is important | This problem is unimportant |
| 2. I know very little about this problem. | I know a lot about this problem. |
| 3. The American government can do a lot to solve this problem. | The American government can do very little to solve this problem. |
| 4. This problem will decrease in the next twenty years. | This problem will increase in the next twenty years. |
| 5. This problem is not interesting to learn about. | This problem is interesting to learn about. |
| 6. This problem is solvable. | This problem is unsolvable. |
| 7. International organizations can do very little to solve this problem. | International organizations can do a lot to solve this problem. |
| 8. This problem is unavoidable. | This problem is avoidable. |
| 9. This problem is related to many other problems. | This problem is not related to many other problems. |
| 10. This problem is temporary. | This problem is long-term. |
| 11. This problem is of concern to people in many parts of the world. | This problem is of concern to people in only a few parts of the world. |

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Figure 2

COMPARISON OF STUDENT SELF-PERCEPTIONS

J = Japan
U.S. = United States
F = Freshman
S = Senior

			<u>True</u>	<u>False</u>
1. I am interested in international relations and acquire information about international developments whenever I can.	%J	F	30.8	69.2
		S	34.2	65.8
	%U.S.	F	60.3	39.7
		S	65.3	34.7
2. The fact that a flood can kill 25,000 people in India is very depressing to me.	%J	F	74.5	25.5
		S	71.3	28.7
	%U.S.	F	70.5	29.5
		S	69.0	31.0
3. I am most comfortable with people from my own culture.	%J	F	74.8	25.2
		S	78.4	21.6
	%U.S.	F	78.6	21.4
		S	77.9	22.1
4. I feel a strong kinship with the worldwide human family.	%J	F	38.6	61.4
		S	37.9	61.8
	%U.S.	F	41.4	58.6
		S	42.4	57.6
5. I rarely read news articles about international events.	%J	F	34.1	65.9
		S	19.7	80.0
	%U.S.	F	26.0	74.0
		S	20.3	79.7
6. I find the customs of foreigners difficult to understand.	%J	F	31.3	68.5
		S	25.6	74.4
	%U.S.	F	27.8	72.2
		S	22.8	77.2
7. When I hear that thousands of people are starving in Cambodia I feel very frustrated.	%J	F	57.3	42.2
		S	50.9	49.1
	%U.S.	F	69.4	30.6
		S	71.6	28.4

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Figure 3
SELECTED FOREIGN LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

		<u>Agree</u>	<u>Indifferent</u>	<u>Disagree</u>
1. I enjoy meeting people who speak other languages.	%F	46.9	42.3	10.5
	%S	42.0	44.2	13.5
2. It is important for Japanese to learn foreign languages.	%F	88.3	10.3	1.2
	%S	86.7	11.3	1.7
3. Studying a foreign language can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	%F	15.1	41.4	43.3
	%S	10.3	41.8	47.7
4. Foreign languages are not an important part of the school program.	%F	73.9	20.8	5.0
	%S	74.4	22.4	3.2
5. Studying a foreign language can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the art and literature of another country.	%F	44.0	39.5	16.3
	%S	43.0	44.0	13.0
7. If I had to stay for an extended period of time in a country whose language I did not know at all, I would make an effort to learn that language even though I could get along in that country by using English.	%F	77.8	14.4	7.7
	%S	80.3	13.0	6.6
15. Studying a foreign language can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.	%F	56.2	37.3	6.2
	%S	58.5	31.4	10.1

341.

			<u>True</u>	<u>False</u>
8. I am not interested in studying other cultures.	%J	F	9.1	89.7
		S	6.9	93.1
	%U.S.	F	12.1	87.9
		S	12.1	87.9
9. I have almost nothing in common with people in underdeveloped nations.	%J	F	18.5	81.3
		S	15.5	84.5
	%U.S.	F	28.0	72.0
		S	27.7	72.3
10. I make an effort to meet people from other countries.	%J	F	17.0	82.5
		S	11.3	88.2
	%U.S.	F	60.0	40.0
		S	58.6	41.4